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**Accounting for heavy tails
in stochastic frontier models**

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Accounting for Heavy Tails in Stochastic Frontier Models

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Summary

This paper aims at introducing a new class of stochastic frontier models that can take account for fat tails in the composed error. Quite surprisingly, all the stochastic frontier models proposed in literature cannot handle situations where the empirical distribution of the composed error has heavy tails. These situations are instead very common in applications. In particular, we will propose to model the composed error with the skew-t distribution. This is equivalent to assume a Student-t distribution for the measurement error and a half-t distribution for the inefficiency. In this way, we extend quite naturally, the stochastic frontier model where a normal distribution is assumed for the symmetric error and a half-normal distribution is assumed for the inefficiency term.

Some key words: Composed error; Efficiency analysis; Skew-t distribution

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Accounting for Heavy Tails in Stochastic Frontier Models

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Abstract

The paper discusses the impact of heavy-tailed error distributions on the efficiency estimates in stochastic frontier models. It shows that heavy-tailed distributions lead to more efficient estimates compared to the normal distribution. The paper also discusses the implications of heavy-tailed distributions for the estimation of the scale parameter and the shape parameter of the distribution. The paper concludes that heavy-tailed distributions are a natural choice for modeling the error structure in stochastic frontier models.

1 Introduction

Stochastic frontier models, introduced in Meeusen and van den Broeck (1977) and Aigner *et. al.* (1977), are useful tools to evaluate the efficiency of economic agents, such as firms, individuals or countries. The principle underlying the model is that the observed production of a single unit cannot exceed the unobserved potential production i.e. the frontier, which is the maximum possible production given input quantities. The difference between the frontier and the observed production is a measure of inefficiency. Such difference is modelled by a one-sided random variable. The model is completed adding a symmetric random variable capturing the measurement error of the frontier.

In the commonly adopted formulation a normal distribution is assumed for the symmetric error while a half-normal distribution is assumed for the one-sided random variable. This framework leads to model the composed error by a probability distribution known, in the statistical literature, as skew-normal distribution, see Azzalini (1985) and Azzalini and Capitanio (1999). The skew-normal distribution is a family of distributions including the normal, but with an extra parameter to regulate the skewness. The stochastic frontier model introduced by Aigner *et. al.* (1977), ALS model in the following, is a skew normal regression models with negative skewness.

Several other distributions for the inefficiency term, have been proposed, in different times, in place of the half-normal distribution. For example, Meeusen and van den Broeck (1977) adopt the exponential distribution, Stevenson (1980) the truncated normal and Greene (1990) the gamma distribution. A unified approach is proposed in van den Broeck *et al.* (1994) where the results obtained with different inefficiency distributions are pooled together by Bayesian model averaging. Finally, a semi-parametric Bayesian approach is proposed in Griffin and Steel (2002) where a Dirichelet process with gamma mean is assumed for the inefficiency distribution.

This paper aims at introducing a new class of stochastic frontier models that can take account for fat tails in the composed error. Quite surprisingly, all the proposals existing in literature, at least to our knowledge, cannot handle situations where the empirical distribution of the composed error has heavy tails which, instead, are very common in applications. In particular, we will propose to model the composed error with the skew-t distribution introduced by Azzalini and Capitanio (2002). This is equivalent to assume a Student-t distribution for the measurement error and a half-t distribution for the inefficiency. In this way, we extend quite naturally, the ALS model, which becomes a limit case of our model.

Section 2 describes the new model with particular emphasis on frequentist inference both for testing the presence of the inefficiency term and for estimating individual technical efficiencies. In particular it is shown that, in estimating individual efficiencies, the skew-t model has a completely different approach respect to the ALS model when we have observations which are suspected of being outliers. In the ALS model, observations with a large positive deviation from the estimated frontier lead to estimates of individual efficiency concentrated in one. Instead, for the skew-t model these observations are not considered informative for estimating individual efficiency.

In section 3 we apply the model to the well known data set of the American electrical companies. This data set has been carefully analyzed, in a frequentist setting, by Ritter and Simar (1994), who conclude that the data show more evidence for the normal linear model without inefficiency than for stochastic frontier models. We will show that assuming a skew-t model for the composed error provides a more reasonable fit than the normal linear model and that taking account for fat tails increases the evidence for the inefficiency term. Moreover we will study the behaviour of the estimates of individual efficiencies respect to the distance from the estimated frontier both for the ALS model and the skew-t model.

In section 4 we give a brief discussion for subsequent modelling and research.

1 Introduction

Stochastic frontier models, introduced in Meeusen and van den Brink (1977) and Aigner et al. (1977), are used to estimate the efficiency of production units. The basic idea is to model the production function as a stochastic frontier, where the distance from the frontier is measured by a non-negative random variable. The stochastic frontier model is estimated by maximum likelihood methods, and the efficiency of each unit is estimated as the ratio of the observed output to the estimated frontier output. The stochastic frontier model is a special case of the more general stochastic frontier model, where the distance from the frontier is measured by a non-negative random variable. The stochastic frontier model is estimated by maximum likelihood methods, and the efficiency of each unit is estimated as the ratio of the observed output to the estimated frontier output. The stochastic frontier model is a special case of the more general stochastic frontier model, where the distance from the frontier is measured by a non-negative random variable. The stochastic frontier model is estimated by maximum likelihood methods, and the efficiency of each unit is estimated as the ratio of the observed output to the estimated frontier output.

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2 The model

Let us consider the model

$$y_i = h(x_i, \beta) + \epsilon_i - z_i \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (1)$$

where y_i denotes the log of the output variable for firm i ($i = 1, \dots, n$) and x_i is a vector of observations for the explanatory variables for firm i . In stochastic frontier models ϵ_i is a symmetric distribution with zero mean while z_i is a one-sided positive distribution. For instance, in the ALS model ϵ_i is assumed $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$ and u_i is assumed half-normal distributed $|\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_z^2)|$.

Respect to the ALS model we assume that $z_i = |v_i|$ and that the couples ϵ_i, v_i are distributed like a bivariate Student-t distribution with zero means, scale parameters σ_ϵ and σ_z , uncorrelated components and shape parameter ν , independently for $i = 1, \dots, n$. The density can be written as

$$f(\epsilon_i, v_i) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{\nu+2}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2}) \nu \pi \sigma_\epsilon \sigma_z} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{\nu} \left[\left(\frac{\epsilon_i}{\sigma_\epsilon} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{v_i}{\sigma_z} \right)^2 \right] \right\}^{-\frac{\nu+2}{2}} \quad i = 1, \dots, n. \quad (2)$$

The meaning of the variables ϵ_i and z_i remains the same of standard stochastic frontier models. In fact ϵ_i still represents a symmetric disturbance capturing the measurement error of the stochastic frontier and z_i is still a nonnegative random variable modelling the level of inefficiency. The novelty here is that ϵ_i is marginally distributed like a univariate Student-t distribution $\mathcal{T}(0, \sigma_\epsilon, \nu)$ and z_i is marginally distributed like a half Student-t $|\mathcal{T}(0, \sigma_z, \nu)|$.

The sampling distribution of y_i has been derived, in a more general context, by Azzalini and Capitanio (2002). Specifically, if we write

$$y_i = h(x_i, \beta) + \sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2} \left[\frac{\sigma_\epsilon}{\sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}} U - \frac{\sigma_z}{\sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}} |U_0| \right], \quad (3)$$

where (U_0, U) is a standard bivariate Student-t distribution with shape parameter ν , then we can apply proposition 9 of Azzalini and Capitanio (2002). Thus we have that

$$p(y_i; \beta, \sigma_\epsilon, \sigma_z, \nu) = 2 f_t(y_i; h(x_i, \beta), \omega, \nu) \times T_1 \left[\alpha \frac{y_i - h(x_i, \beta)}{\omega} \left(\frac{\nu + 1}{\omega^{-2}(y_i - h(x_i, \beta))^2 + \nu} \right)^{1/2}; \nu + 1 \right] \quad (4)$$

where $f_t(y; h(x_i, \beta), \omega, \nu)$ denotes the density function of a Student-t distribution with mean $h(x_i, \beta)$, scale ω and ν degrees of freedom, $\omega = \sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}$, $T_1(y, \nu + 1)$ denotes the scalar Student-t distribution with $\nu + 1$ degrees of freedom and $\alpha = -\sigma_z/\sigma_\epsilon$. Distributions with density (4) are called skew-t distributions and they generalize the skew-normal distributions (Azzalini, (1985)) which can be obtained when the shape parameter ν goes to infinity.

Note that the same mechanism that generates a Student-t distribution from a normal distribution allow us to generate a skew-t from a skew-normal. In fact Azzalini and Capitanio (2002) show that a skew-t distribution can be obtained as mixture of skew-normal variates with scale parameter $1/\sqrt{\lambda}$ where $\lambda \sim \Gamma(\nu/2, \nu/2)$. Thus model (1) can be written also in the following way

$$y_i = h(x_i, \beta) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} (\epsilon_i - z_i) \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (5)$$

where $\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$, $z_i = |\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_z^2)|$ and $\lambda \sim \Gamma(\nu/2, \nu/2)$. Indeed, the difference $\epsilon_i - z_i$ in (5), which is the composed error of the ALS model, follows a skew-normal distribution with location parameter equal to zero, scale parameter equal to $\sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}$ and shape parameter equal to $-\sigma_z/\sigma_\epsilon$.

3. The model

Let us consider the model

$$(1) \quad \dot{x} = Ax + b, \quad x(0) = x_0,$$

where A is a constant matrix, b is a constant vector, and x_0 is the initial value of x . The solution of (1) is given by

$$x(t) = e^{At} x_0 + \int_0^t e^{A(t-\tau)} b d\tau.$$

Let us assume that A is a constant matrix, b is a constant vector, and x_0 is the initial value of x .

$$(2) \quad \dot{x} = Ax + b, \quad x(0) = x_0,$$

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2.1 Testing the presence of the inefficiency term

The natural use of model (4) is without constraining the parameter α to be negative. In fact, if we let α to vary in $(-\infty, \infty)$ the statistical model (4) is a regression model that can account for fat tails and for both positive and negative skewness of the error distribution. Positive values for α correspond to composed error distributions where a half-t is added to a Student-t, switching drastically the meaning of the model respect to stochastic frontier models. Anyway considering the model (4) with $\alpha \in (-\infty, \infty)$ can be helpful for inferential aims also in stochastic frontier models. Specifically, in testing $H_0 : \alpha = 0$ against $H_1 : \alpha < 0$, i.e. in testing the presence of the inefficiency term, the signed version of the likelihood ratio statistic may be used. That is

$$R = \text{sgn}(\hat{\alpha}) \{2[\ell(\hat{\theta}) - \ell(\hat{\theta}^*)]\}^{1/2} \quad (6)$$

where $\theta = (\beta, \omega, \alpha)$, $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\theta}$ denote the maximum likelihood estimates of α and θ when $\alpha \in (-\infty, \infty)$ and $\hat{\theta}^*$ denote the maximum likelihood estimate when $\alpha = 0$. The asymptotic distribution of R under the null model is standard normal and having observed R_{obs} the evidence of H_0 against H_1 is given by $P(\mathcal{N}(0, 1) < R_{obs})$.

2.2 Estimation of firm-level technical efficiencies

In stochastic frontier models the main interest is not on the parameters themselves, but in the individual technical efficiencies, measured by $r_i = \exp(-z_i)$. Estimates of these quantities are obtained considering the conditional expected values $E(r_i|y_i)$, see for example Coelli *et al.* (1998). In the appendix we prove that for model (1) the conditional density of z_i given y_i is

$$f(z_i|y_i) = \frac{\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)^{\nu/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu+2}{2}\right)}{f(y_i) \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) \pi \sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_z^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left\{ \nu + \frac{(y_i - h_i)^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2} + \frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_z^2} \left(z_i + (y_i - h_i) \frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2} \right)^2 \right\} \right]^{\frac{\nu+2}{2}}}. \quad (7)$$

Thus, a point estimation of the individual technical efficiency can be obtained integrating numerically $\int e^{-z_i} f(z_i|y_i) dz_i$ where in $f(z_i|y_i)$ we replace the unknown parameters with the maximum likelihood estimates. A measure of uncertainty of these estimates is obtained considering the plug-in estimates of the standard deviation of e^{-z_i} given y_i . Note that, in this way, we do not take account of parameter uncertainty, but, from a frequentist point of view, this seems the standard practice since Jondrow *et al.* (1982).

Let us observe that adopting the skew-t model in place of the ALS model lead to a completely different behaviour in estimating individual efficiency of firms with large positive deviations from the estimated frontier. In fact, if we indicate the frontier $h(x_i, \beta)$ with h_i we have that (see the appendix) for the ALS model

$$\lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} f(z_i|y_i) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } z_i = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } z_i > 0 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

while for the skew-t model

$$\lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} f(z_i|y_i) = 0 \quad z_i \geq 0. \quad (9)$$

This means that when $y_i - h_i$ goes to infinity the conditional distribution of z_i in the ALS model is concentrated in zero while for the skew-t model is improper uniform on $[0, \infty)$.

Now let us suppose to have an observation y_i which produces an estimated positive residual $y_i - h(x_i, \hat{\beta})$ very far from the bulk of the other residuals. Thus we should consider y_i as an

2.1. Testing the presence of the multicollinearity

The presence of multicollinearity is a serious problem in regression analysis. It is a condition in which the independent variables are not linearly independent. This means that one or more of the independent variables can be expressed as a linear combination of the other independent variables. This leads to a situation where the regression coefficients are not uniquely determined, and the standard errors of the coefficients are inflated. This can lead to misleadingly concluding that a variable is not significant when it is, or vice versa.

There are several ways to test for multicollinearity. One common method is to calculate the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) for each independent variable. The VIF is a measure of how much the variance of the regression coefficient is inflated due to multicollinearity. A VIF of 1 indicates no multicollinearity, while a VIF greater than 1 indicates multicollinearity. A VIF of 5 or greater is generally considered to be a sign of serious multicollinearity.

Another method is to examine the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix of the independent variables. If any eigenvalue is close to zero, this indicates multicollinearity. The eigenvectors corresponding to the small eigenvalues represent the directions in which the independent variables are highly correlated.

Finally, one can also look at the condition number of the matrix of the independent variables. The condition number is the ratio of the largest eigenvalue to the smallest eigenvalue. A large condition number indicates multicollinearity.

In summary, multicollinearity is a common problem in regression analysis that can lead to misleading results. There are several ways to test for multicollinearity, including calculating the VIF, examining the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix of the independent variables, and looking at the condition number of the matrix of the independent variables.

$$VIF_j = \frac{1}{1 - R_j^2}$$

$$R_j^2 = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{j-1} \beta_{jk}^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{j-1} \beta_{jk}^2 + \beta_{jj}^2}$$

where VIF_j is the Variance Inflation Factor for the j th independent variable, R_j^2 is the coefficient of determination for the j th independent variable, and β_{jk} are the regression coefficients. The VIF is a measure of how much the variance of the regression coefficient is inflated due to multicollinearity. A VIF of 1 indicates no multicollinearity, while a VIF greater than 1 indicates multicollinearity. A VIF of 5 or greater is generally considered to be a sign of serious multicollinearity.

The eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix of the independent variables can also be used to test for multicollinearity. If any eigenvalue is close to zero, this indicates multicollinearity. The eigenvectors corresponding to the small eigenvalues represent the directions in which the independent variables are highly correlated.

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where M is the matrix of the independent variables. The eigenvalues of M are 1, 1, and 0. The eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalue 0 are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

The condition number of the matrix of the independent variables is a measure of how much the variance of the regression coefficient is inflated due to multicollinearity. A large condition number indicates multicollinearity.

In summary, multicollinearity is a common problem in regression analysis that can lead to misleading results. There are several ways to test for multicollinearity, including calculating the VIF, examining the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix of the independent variables, and looking at the condition number of the matrix of the independent variables.

outlier and, maybe, we should remove it from the data before calculating the required inference. Now, if we are fitting the data with the ALS model we have, for this observation, that the plug-in estimate of r_i will be near one and the plug-in estimates of $Var(e^{-z_i}|y_i)$ near zero. In fact, by (8) the distribution of e^{-z_i} given y_i will be very concentrated near one. Thus we should believe that this observation is very informative for estimating individual technical efficiency. The situation is completely different with the skew-t model. In fact when we have an observation which produces a high estimated residual, the plug-in estimate of $Var(e^{-z_i}|y_i)$ will be very high. This is because the limit distribution of $z_i|y_i$ is completely flat. Thus, this observation will not be considered very informative for estimating individual technical efficiency. This means that, when our primary goal is to estimate individual efficiencies, by adopting the skew-t model we do not have to worry whether to discard an outlier or not. In fact the model automatically increases the degree of uncertainty of our conclusions when we are in presence of outliers.

3 Example

We consider the data collected by Christensen and Greene (1976) for 123 electric utility companies in the US in 1970. The data are given in the appendix to Greene (1990) and have been used by van den Brock *et al* (1994) and Tsionas (2002). There are three production factors labor, capital and fuel with prices p_L , p_K , and p_F and the cost function which is usually specified is

$$y_i = -\beta_0 - \beta_1 \ln Q_i - \beta_2 \ln^2 Q_i - \beta_3 \ln \frac{p_{K_i}}{p_{F_i}} - \beta_4 \ln \frac{p_{L_i}}{p_{F_i}} + \epsilon_i - v_i \quad (10)$$

where $y_i = -\ln C_i/p_{F_i}$, Q_i is the output and C_i the cost of the i th firm.

3.1 Normal against skew-t model

For this data set, Ritter and Simar (1994) compare, from a likelihood point of view, a normal regression model with several stochastic frontier models. They conclude that a normal linear model without inefficiency is enough to explain the data. Thus we firstly try to understand if a skew-t model lead to a significantly improved explanation of the data over a standard regression model.

Maximum likelihood estimates (MLE) and approximated 95% confidence interval are reported in Tab 1 for the normal linear model, the ALS model and the skew-t regression model. We observe that the maximum log-likelihood for the normal model is 65.67, while for the skew-t regression model we have obtained 68.75. Thus the test statistic $D = \ell(\hat{\theta}) - \ell(\hat{\theta}^*)$, where $\ell(\hat{\theta})$ and $\ell(\hat{\theta}^*)$ denote the maximized log-likelihood within the skew-t regression model and the normal regression model, is 6.12. Anyway, comparing the two models by the test statistic D needs some caution. In fact the normal regression model occurs on the frontier of the parametric space of the skew-t regression model, specifically when ν tends to infinity and the ratio σ_z/σ_ϵ tends to zero. Therefore, the chi-square approximation to twice the log-likelihood does not apply in this context. To circumvent the problem we have opted for a bootstrap approach. Specifically we have generated 10000 samples from the estimated normal model $y_i = h(x_i, \hat{\beta}) + \epsilon_i$ with $\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \hat{\sigma})$ where $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$ are the MLE. For each sample we have calculated the difference between the maximum log-likelihood under the skew-t model with ν fixed to the MLE $\hat{\nu} = 4.6461$ and the maximum log-likelihood under the normal model. The associated bootstrap p-value for the normal model is 0.014. This indicates low evidence for the normal linear model respect to the skew-t model. Graphical analysis seem to confirm this. In Fig 1 we report, for the normal, ALS, and skew-t model, the histograms and pp-plots for the estimated standardized residuals $(y_i - h(x_i, \hat{\beta}))/\hat{\omega}$, where ω is equal to σ_ϵ for the normal model and to $\sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}$ both for the ALS model and the skew-t model. In particular,

looking the pp-plots for the normal model and the skew-t model it is evident that the latter fits the data better.

3.2 Testing the inefficiency term

The next goal in analyzing the data is to understand if we can drop the inefficiency term when we take account of heavy tails, thus we test $H_0 : \alpha = 0$ against $H_1 : \alpha < 0$, in model (4) with $\alpha \in (-\infty, \infty)$ and we use test statistic R . The MLE of α is $\hat{\alpha} = -0.936$ and the maximum log-likelihood associated to the Student-t regression model is 67.56. The test statistic $R = \text{sign}(\hat{\alpha})(\ell(\hat{\theta}) - \ell(\hat{\theta}^*))^{1/2}$ is -1.536 and the associated observed p-value is 0.06 indicating low evidence for the absence of the inefficiency term. Note that inference on the inefficiency term is affected by accounting for heavy tails. Indeed, in comparing the normal model against the ALS model, we may test $H_0 : \alpha = 0$ against $H_1 : \alpha < 0$, in model (4) with $\alpha \in (-\infty, \infty)$ and $\nu = \infty$. In this case the test statistic R is equal to -0.94 and the observed p-value is $P(\mathcal{N}(0, 1) < -0.94) = 0.17$. Thus, for the electric companies data set, when we allow for thick tails the evidence for the presence of the inefficiency term increases.

3.3 Estimating individual efficiencies

Finally we present our results for the efficiency of firms within the sample. In table 2 we compare the quantities $r_i = E(e^{-z_i}|y_i)$ for the first five firms in the sample both for the ALS model and the skew-t model. These are the same firms analyzed by van den Broeck *et al.* (1994). We see that, with the skew-t model the estimates for r_i are generally bigger than for the ALS model, with the exception of the second firm. More insight into the behaviour of the models about efficiency analysis is given in Fig 2. This plots, for all the firms, the plug-in estimates of $r_i = E(e^{-z_i}|y_i)$ and s_i where $s_i^2 = \text{Var}(e^{-z_i}|y_i)$ against the estimated residuals $y_i - h(x_i, \hat{\beta})$ both for the ALS model and the skew-t model. We see that for the ALS model r_i is always increasing while s_i first increases and then decreases in according to the fact the e^{-z_i} given y_i should be concentrated in one when $y_i - h(x_i, \hat{\beta})$ becomes very large. For the skew-t model we have a different behaviour, when the residuals becomes larger both r_i and s_i start to increase in according with our findings that the density of z_i given y_i is completely flat when $y_i - h(x_i, \hat{\beta})$ becomes very large.

4 Discussion

In this paper we have introduced a new stochastic frontier model with several attractive features. First of all, it generalizes the common stochastic frontier model, where a normal distribution is assumed for the error term and a half-normal distribution is assumed for the inefficiency term, allowing for fat tails in the composed error distribution. Adopting this new model we do not have to worry to remove outlier observations before drawing inference. In fact, if our aim is to estimate individual technical efficiency, the model automatically increases the uncertainty of our estimates when we have observations lying above and far from the estimated frontier. We have discussed frequentist inference and further research will be conducted on estimating the model from a Bayesian point of view.

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1.2. Testing the inefficiency form

The first test in analyzing the data is to ... the ... the ...

2.1. Estimating the stochastic frontier

The first step in estimating the stochastic frontier is to ... the ... the ...

4. Discussion

In this paper we have presented a new stochastic frontier model with several interesting features. First of all, it generalizes the common stochastic frontier model, which is based on the ...

Appendix A

Density for the individual inefficiency in the skew- t model

$$f(z_i | y_i) = \int f(z_i | \lambda_i, y_i) f(\lambda_i | y_i) d\lambda_i$$

$$f(z_i | \lambda_i, y_i) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\lambda_i (\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2)}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_z^2} \left(z_i - \frac{\sigma_z^2 (y_i - h_i)}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2} \right)^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi} \frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_z^2}{\lambda_i (\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2)} \Phi \left(\frac{-\sqrt{\lambda_i} \sigma_z (y_i - h_i)}{\sigma_\epsilon \sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}} \right)}$$

$$f(\lambda_i | y_i) = \frac{f(y_i | \lambda_i) f(\lambda_i)}{f(y_i)} = \frac{2\sqrt{\lambda_i} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\lambda_i (y_i - h_i)^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}} \Phi \left(\frac{-\sqrt{\lambda_i} \sigma_z (y_i - h_i)}{\sigma_\epsilon \sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}} \right) \left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right)^{\nu/2} e^{-\lambda_i \frac{\nu}{2}} \lambda_i^{\nu/2 - 1}}{f(y_i) \sqrt{2\pi (\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2)} \Gamma \left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(z_i | y_i) &= \frac{\left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right)^{\nu/2}}{f(y_i) \Gamma \left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right) \pi \sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_z^2}} \int_0^\infty \lambda_i^{\frac{\nu+2}{2} - 1} e^{-\frac{\lambda_i}{2} \left[\nu + \frac{(y_i - h_i)^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2} + \frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_z^2} \left(z_i + (y_i - h_i) \frac{\sigma_z^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2} \right)^2 \right]} d\lambda_i \\ &= \frac{\left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right)^{\nu/2} \Gamma \left(\frac{\nu+2}{2} \right)}{f(y_i) \Gamma \left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right) \pi \sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_z^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left\{ \nu + \frac{(y_i - h_i)^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2} + \frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_z^2} \left(z_i + (y_i - h_i) \frac{\sigma_z^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2} \right)^2 \right\} \right]^{\frac{\nu+2}{2}}} \end{aligned}$$

Results for the individual responses to the survey are

Table 1: Summary of responses

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	15	15%
Agree	45	45%
Disagree	20	20%
Strongly disagree	10	10%
Don't know	5	5%

Appendix B

Limiting behaviour for the individual inefficiency

1) *ALS model*

Let us consider the following notation $A = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma_z^2 \sigma_\epsilon^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_\epsilon^2}$, $B = \frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}$, $C = \frac{\sigma_z}{\sigma_\epsilon} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}}$, and observe that $-\frac{1}{2}C^2 = -AB^2$. We have

$$\lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} f(z_i | y_i) = \lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{-A(z_i + B(y_i - h_i))^2}}{\Phi(-C(y_i - h_i))} = \lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-2e^{-A(z_i + B(y_i - h_i))^2} AB(z_i + B(y_i - h_i))}{-Ce^{-\frac{1}{2}C^2(y_i - h_i)^2}}$$

Thus if $z_i = 0$ we have

$$\lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} f(z_i | y_i) = \lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} 2 \frac{AB^2}{C} (y_i - h_i) = \infty$$

while if $z_i > 0$ we have

$$\lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} f(z_i | y_i) = \lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} e^{-A(z_i + B(y_i - h_i))^2 + \frac{1}{2}C^2(y_i - h_i)^2} = 0$$

2) *skew-t model*

$$\lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} f(z_i | y_i) = \lim_{y_i - h_i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left[1 + \frac{1}{\nu} \left(\frac{y_i - h_i}{\sqrt{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}} \right)^2 \right]^{\frac{\nu+1}{2}}}{\left[\nu + \frac{(y_i - h_i)^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2} + \frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2 + \sigma_z^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_z^2} \left(z_i + (y_i - h_i) \frac{\sigma_z}{\sigma_\epsilon + \sigma_z} \right)^2 \right]^{\frac{\nu+2}{2}}} = 0 \quad \forall z \geq 0$$

Appendix B

Working document for the technical committee

15/11/2014

The following table shows the results of the technical committee

Table 1: Results of the technical committee

The following table shows the results of the technical committee

Table 2: Results of the technical committee

(a) $\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1+x}{1-x}$

(b) $\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1+x}{1-x}$

Table 3: Results of the technical committee

(c) $\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1+x}{1-x}$

The following table shows the results of the technical committee

(d) $\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1+x}{1-x}$

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	normal linear model		ALS model		skew-t model	
	mle	95% confidence interval	mle	95% confidence interval	mle	95% interval.
β_0	-7.2047	(-7.8512 -6.5582)	-7.4071	(-8.0389 -6.7752)	-7.8208	(-8.4419 -7.1997)
β_1	0.3860	(0.3126 0.4595)	0.4081	(0.3316 0.4846)	0.4549	(0.3871 0.5228)
β_2	0.0316	(0.0264 0.0368)	0.0306	(0.0254 0.0357)	0.0278	(0.0231 0.0325)
β_3	0.2462	(0.1178 0.3746)	0.2439	(0.1186 0.3692)	0.2952	(0.1724 0.4181)
β_4	0.0792	(-0.0390 0.1974)	0.0592	(-0.0606 0.1790)	0.0344	(-0.0725 0.1412)
σ_z	—	—	0.1558	(0.0853 0.2844)	0.0900	(0.0302 0.2682)
σ_ϵ	0.1419	(0.1252,0.1608)	0.1069	(0.0703 0.1627)	0.0949	(0.0669 0.1347)
ν	—	—	—	—	4.6461	(1.912 11.2441)
$\log lik$	65.67		66.14		68.75	

Table 1: Estimates, 95% confidence intervals and maximum loglikelihood values

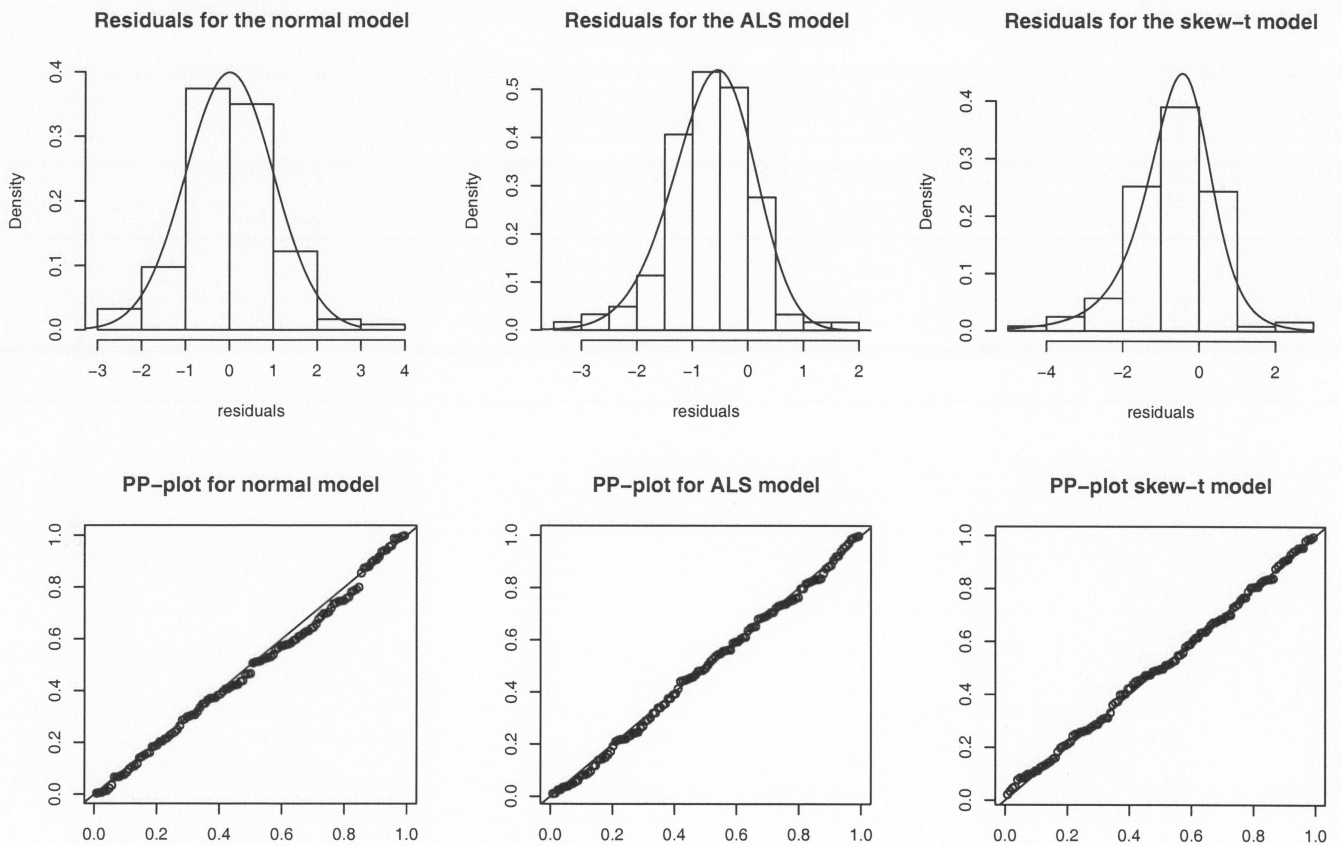


Figure 1: Residuals analysis

	ALS model	skew-t model
r_1	0.7325	0.7749
r_2	0.9650	0.9408
r_3	0.9145	0.9432
r_4	0.8980	0.9252
r_5	0.9510	0.9524

Table 2: Efficiencies for the first five firms

Model	Parameter	Estimate	95% CI
Normal model	μ	-0.1232	(-0.1232, -0.1232)
	σ^2	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	τ^2	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	λ	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	γ	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
ALZ model	μ	-0.1232	(-0.1232, -0.1232)
	σ^2	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	τ^2	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	λ	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	γ	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
ALZ model	μ	-0.1232	(-0.1232, -0.1232)
	σ^2	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	τ^2	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	λ	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	γ	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)

Table 1: Posterior distributions for parameters of the three models.



Figure 1: Diagnostic plots for the three models.

Model	Parameter	Estimate	95% CI
Normal model	μ	-0.1232	(-0.1232, -0.1232)
	σ^2	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	τ^2	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	λ	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	γ	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
ALZ model	μ	-0.1232	(-0.1232, -0.1232)
	σ^2	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	τ^2	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	λ	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)
	γ	0.0001	(0.0001, 0.0001)

Table 2: Posterior distributions for the first five parameters.

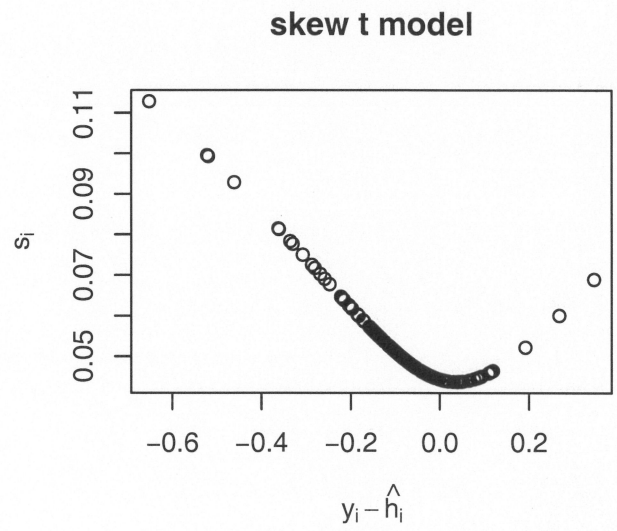
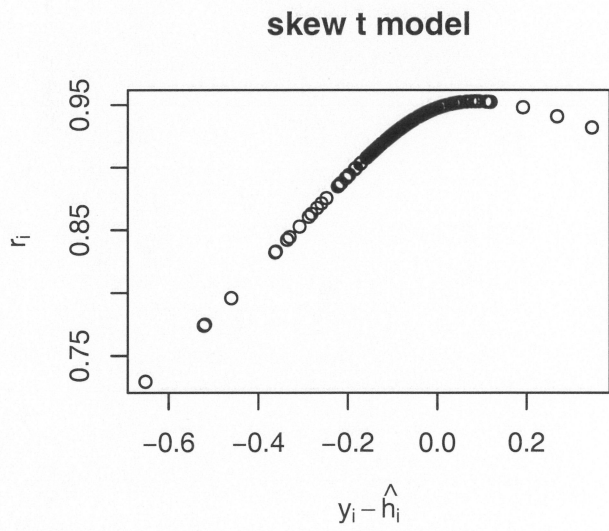
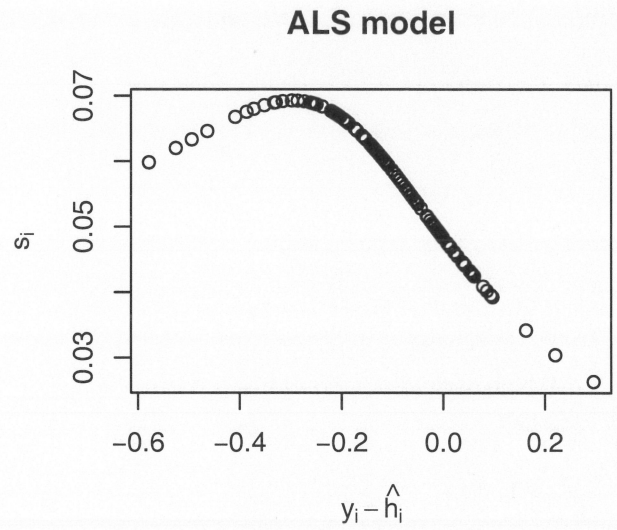
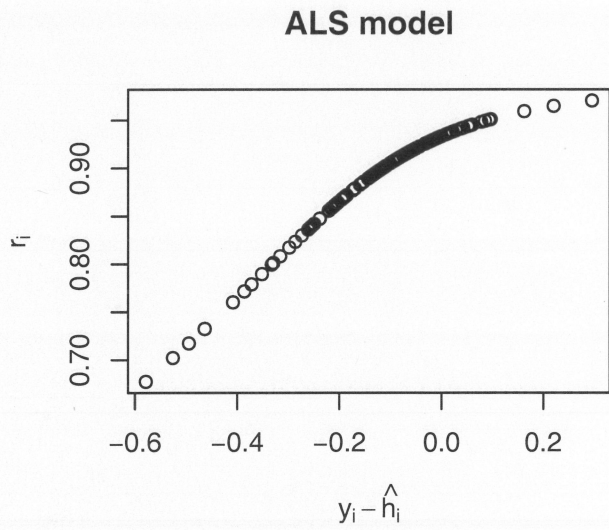


Figure 2: Efficiencies respect to the estimated residuals



Figure 2: Residuals plot for the ALS model